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ABSTRACT

This bibliography provides annotations of 33 major research studies on the school and social factors that impede disadvantaged children's ability to learn and succeed in school. The studies demonstrate that a wide range of educational, familial, and social influences can either put children at risk of educational failure early in their lives or help them overcome their disadvantages later in their school careers. No single aspect seems to explain a child's achievement, and several of the studies even contradict the findings of others. Studies are arranged in three sections that reflect the influences of school, home, and society in general on a child's educational experiences. Several authors are represented by different papers in more than one category. Recent research is emphasized, but some seminal studies on at-risk children that were conducted a decade or more ago are also included. Most studies are dated between 1982 and 1989. (Author/FMW)

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THE HOME AND SCHOOL EXPERIENCES OF AT-RISK YOUTH: AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RESEARCH STUDIES

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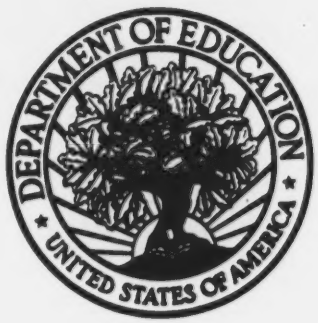

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INTRODUCTION

This bibliography provides annotations of 33 major research studies on the social factors that impede disadvantaged children's ability to learn and succeed in school. The studies demonstrate that a wide range of educational, familial, and social influences can either put children at risk of educational failure early in their lives or help them overcome their disadvantage later in their school careers. Collected here, they do not point to a single aspect of life that can explain a child's achievement—indeed, several of the studies contradict the findings of others. Rather, they demonstrate the extreme complexity of social influences on a child's development.

The bibliography is divided into three sections to reflect the influences of school, home, and society in general on a child's educational experience; some studies placed in one section could also be placed in another as well. In addition, several authors are represented by different papers in more than one category. The emphasis is on recent research, but some seminal research studies on at-risk children were conducted a decade or more ago, and these are included here too. Most studies are dated between 1982 and 1989.

Alexander, K.L., & Cook, M.A. (1982). Curricula and coursework: A surprise ending to a familiar story. *American Sociological Review*, 47, 626-640.

This study concludes that the influence of high school curricula is restricted to students' orientations toward postsecondary education, and has little to do with the various "educational treatments" that are often used to justify curriculum differentiation.

Data were collected from the Study of Academic Prediction and Growth, which was conducted by the Educational Testing Service from 1961 to 1969. Questionnaires were administered in grades 9, 11, and 12; standardized tests in grades 5, 9, 11, and 12. Grade point average (GPA) and course selection information were also included. Background data from each student included: ability, sex, race, educational plans, curriculum track, achievement, time spent on homework, peers' college plans, parents' education, and parent encouragement.

Determinants of college track placement included wanting to attend college and having peers who intended to attend college. In addition, good performance in junior high school increased the likelihood that the student would be in an academic track in high school. No evidence of SES, race, or gender bias was found in track placement. Relative to non-academic track peers, academically tracked peers were more intent on going to college; more likely to have applied to college; scored higher on verbal SAT, math SAT, history and English achievement tests; and had higher senior GPAs. However, the students' attitudes and achievement were due less to tracking influences than to pre-high school academic experiences and resources. Track placements, therefore, seemed to carry along differences in achievement trajectories which began in early school years.

Experiences in early schooling may be more important to late school achievement than is high school tracking.

Alexander, K.L., & Entwisle, D.R. (1987). School performance, status relations, and the structure of sentiment: Bringing the teacher back in. *American Sociological Review, 52*, 665-682.

This study explores the effect of teachers' social origins in relation to the status attributes of their students.

Data came from the Beginning School Study (BSS) of the Baltimore City Public Schools in Fall 1982. Twenty schools were randomly selected within strata defined by racial composition and SES background. Class rosters were used to randomly select children from each first grade classroom in the 20 schools. The final sample included 825 first graders, equally divided by race and representative of all socioeconomic levels. Eight hundred parents were interviewed once, 600 were interviewed a second time. Students were interviewed individually twice, and first grade teachers (50 out of 56) responded to three questionnaires. Grades and California Achievement Test scores were obtained through school records.

The research focused on interactions between student and teacher-status attributes. Simple descriptive comparisons revealed that teachers' social origins and students' racial background have the most bearing on teachers' affective responses to their teaching situations and their student evaluations. Among low SES teachers, climate perceptions were similar regardless of student race; among high SES teachers, climate averages differed by more than a full standard deviation favoring white students over black.

Results from analysis of the teacher-variables were regressed against several student background predictors (race, SES, parent education level) and achievement test scores. Then teachers' SES was added to the predictor set to adjust for possible main effects associated with the variability in the status origins within "high" and "low" groupings. The results suggest that pupil-teacher background interactions were present, and that they involve mainly the teacher's SES and the student's race. In the pattern involving race differences in year-end achievement, performance of black students fell short of that of whites only in the classrooms of high SES teachers; there were no race differences among students of low SES teachers.

It appears that students' race, not their SES, interacts with teachers' SES both in terms of achievement ratings and teachers' affective responses.

Becker, W.C., & Gersten, R. (1982). A follow-up of Follow Through: The later effects of the direct instruction model on children in fifth and sixth grades. *American Educational Research Journal, 19*, 75-92.

This study evaluates achievement test scores of low-income fifth and sixth graders as a function of completion of the Direct Instruction Follow Through Program.

In 1975, 624 fifth and sixth grade students who had completed the Follow Through program were tested using the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT) and the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT). The test results were compared to 567 children in local comparison groups with similar demographic characteristics using analysis of covariance. The multiple covariates included: family income level, sex, primary home language, and mother's education. A 1976 comparison study included 473 Follow Through graduates and 403 non-Follow Through children. Separate ANCOVAs were performed on each test site, for each achievement test, for each year. The three-tier analysis used was designed to estimate the treatment effect without bias by the differential sample sizes at the various sites.

The strongest effect was found in the reading sub-test of the WRAT ($p<.005$). A strong effect was also found on the MAT spelling subtest ($p<.005$). Another strong effect was found in the MAT math problem solving subtest ($p<.05$ or .15). Of all the comparisons (N-180), 56 favored the Follow Through sample at the .05 level; none favored the comparison group. On the WRAT reading, MAT spelling, and MAT math problem solving tests, the mean magnitude of effect was either above .33 pooled SD units (WRAT) or .17 to .26 SD units (MAT). Completion of the Direct Instruction Follow Through Program served generally to increase students' reading, spelling, and math skills. And, while participation in the program did not result in improvement in all areas of schooling, the students who did participate performed better than those who did not.

The conclusion reached by the authors was that low-income graduates of a three-year Follow-Through Program performed better on achievement tests than did their non-Follow Through peers in their respective communities. Yet, without intermediate grade instruction that continues to build on the skills emphasized in the Follow Through program, the children are likely to have decreased performance in comparison to their middle-income peers—particularly in a failure to master new computational skills, develop vocabulary, and increase reading comprehension.

Entwisle, D.R., & Hayduk, L.A. (1988). Lasting effects of elementary school. *Sociology of Education, 61*, 147-159.

This article argues that the influences of parents and teachers on children in grades 1-3 are linked to the children's reading and mathematics performance four to nine years later.

Students who had participated in a study carried out between 1971 and 1977 (when they were in first, second, and third grades) were traced in 1980. In the original study, parents' ability ratings and expectations affected the performance of some children, while the influence of teachers was important to others. Variables included: the child's expectations, mother's expectations, mother's estimate of the child's general ability, teachers' expectations, friends' expectations, peer-popularity ratings, race, grades, absences, and student scores on the Cognitive Abilities Test (COG), the California Achievement Test (CAT), and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS).

Regression models to explain the scores on the achievement tests took two main forms: a single equation model that included all the variables measured in 1971-1977, and a stepwise model with the 1971-1977 variables entered in order of explanatory power. In the white middle-class school, the parent's estimate of the child's ability to do schoolwork relative to other children in the third grade had significant effects on the child's long-term achievement in both English and mathematics. In the stepwise analysis, with the parent's ability estimates inserted after current cognitive ability, substantial increments appeared in the explained variance. For children who attended the integrated working-class school, the major long-term predictors of standardized achievement were the teacher's expectations in the first two grades and the teacher's grades in the third grade. For children who attended the black working-class school, parent's ability estimates had significant long-term effects.

These findings are attributed to high achievement levels fostered by parents and teachers as well as continuance of social dependence.

Natriello, G., & McDill, E.L. (1986). Performance standards, student effort on homework, and academic achievement. *Sociology of Education, 59*, 18-31.

This study examines the effects of teachers', parents', and peers' standards on student effort and achievement while controlling for student background factors.

The sample consisted of 12,146 students from 20 public high schools. The students scored above the national average on the standardized test used in Project Talent*, and were predominantly white.

Measures included student's sex, ability, years in school, educational aspirations, curricular track, times spent on homework, English GPA, and number of siblings; father's education and occupational status; mother's education; parents' educational aspirations and standards; teachers' standards; and peers' standards. The parameters of the fully recursive model were estimated through path analysis. The mode of analysis used permitted all total and direct effects in the model to be estimated, and allowed for an assessment of indirect influence. The first equation for each endogenous variable estimates the reduced-form parameters (total effects) for the initial background variables. Subsequent equations add intervening variables in the order implied by the model.

Students of high ability were more likely to report teachers' standards than students of low ability, but they were less likely to report parents' standards. Students with high educational aspirations were more likely to report peers' standards, but less likely to report parents' standards. Students in a college preparatory track and females were more likely to report teachers' and peers' standards, but were less likely to report parents' standards. Finally SES had no significant effects on teachers' and peers' standards and a mixed effect on parents' standards.

Females, students with educated parents, students from smaller families, and students with high educational aspirations spent more time on homework. When teachers, parents, and peers all had high standards, students spent an additional 30 minutes per night on homework. The unstandardized parameter estimates reveal that although homework is associated with higher grades, the effects of homework are small.

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* Dailey, J.T., & Shaycroft, M.F. (1961). *Types of tests in Project Talent.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Pallas, A.M., Entwisle, D.R., Alexander, K.L., & Cadigan, D. (1987). Children who do exceptionally well in first grade. *Sociology of Education, 60*, 257-271.

This study attempts to account for social and personal processes that underlie early gains in verbal competence among urban first graders.

The data analyzed were derived from the Beginning School Study (BSS), a longitudinal study of first graders entering Baltimore City Public Schools in Fall 1982. A stratified random sample, equally divided by race and SES, was selected. It included 825 first graders and 800 parents (usually mothers) who agreed to participate. Data were collected from parents and students through interviews, and teachers, through questionnaires, on separate occasions throughout the school year. Of the 55 teachers who had subjects in their classes, 52 agreed to participate.

The personal characteristics considered included age, height, sex, race, and popularity. Academic self-image was rated on Dickstein's self-esteem scale (alpha reliability = .63).* Satisfaction with school, ascertained by interview, had an alpha reliability of .57. Locus of control was measured by a combination of the Stanford Preschool Internal-External Scale** and the intellectual achievement responsibility scale.*** The child's school performance included variables which measured the child's classroom behavior in both cognitive and noncognitive domains. October 1982 California Achievement Test scores were used to measure growth patterns over the course of first grade. Personal maturity was measured with the Maryland Systematic Teacher Observation Inventory and scales from the National Survey of Children.

Family variables included: parents' educational attainment, estimate of the child's ability, expectations, story reading, and attribution; school absences and lateness; and number of siblings. Teacher characteristics considered were personal and work-related issues, race, SES, marital status, years of experience, years of postbaccalaureate study, personal problems, work-related conflict, workload, and school-climate.

Similar variables were grouped into four clusters and four logistic regression analyses were performed. Significant variables were then screened from separate clusters into a single logistic analysis. The combined logistic regression analysis predicted positive outliers using only the significant variables from the first stage.

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* Dickstein, E. (1972). *The development of self-esteem: Theory and measurement.* Ph.D. Dissertation, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD.

** Mischel, W., Zeiss, R., & Zeiss, A. (1974). Internal-external control and persistence: Validation and implications of the Stanford Preschool Internal-External Scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29*, 265-278.

*** Crandall, V.C., Katkovsky, W., and Crandall, V. (1965). Children's beliefs in their own control of reinforcements in intellectual academic achievement situations. *Child Development, 36*, 91-109.

All of the variables, then, were compared to see which had the greatest impact on the students. Of the characteristics of the students, minority status was the most sharply attenuated; academic self-image and personal maturity increased in importance. Conflict and school climate were the most powerful teacher characteristics in the combined analysis.

As neither background/family measures nor the demographic characteristics of students (age, race, sex) exerted measurable effects on positive academic status, these findings suggest that schools and children's experiences in them may be especially important in promoting cognitive gains.

Passow, A.H. (1988). *Curriculum and instruction in Chapter 1 programs: A look back and a look ahead.* (1-47). New York: ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Trends and Issues No. 11. ED 306 346

This article in the monograph reviews compensatory education programs since promulgation of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981.

Intervention strategies focus upon: family life, early childhood education, basic skills development, bilingual education, and remedial programs. These program interventions can be categorized by target population, nature of services, locus of activities, intent of intervention, focus of diagnosis, prescriptive activities, and source of funding.

Compensatory education programs usually concentrate on reading and mathematics skills taught in small groups or in a pullout setting. Evaluations of these programs have shown a positive, though small, effect on the achievement of disadvantaged students. Gains appear to be greater in earlier years, and early gains are not sustained as the child matures. No significant association exists between dollars spent and achievement gains. Effectiveness tends to be judged according to the narrowing of achievement between advantaged and disadvantaged students. Although achievement levels have not shown a significant decrease in the gap between disadvantaged and advantaged children, disadvantaged students receiving Chapter 1 services score higher on standardized achievement tests than do those who do not receive Chapter 1 services. In addition, the mathematics programs of Chapter 1 tend to be more effective than the reading programs.

Curricula should encourage academic achievement, but should also take into account other types of enhancements, such as the development of emotional maturity and higher-order cognitive skills. Further, compensatory education should not jeopardize the students' quality of education in regular classrooms. The relevance of the compensatory education program is a crucial element in the determination of whether it will prove advantageous for students. For example, proficiency in English is crucial for all students to succeed in higher grade levels.

Compensatory education should draw upon the resources of the home, the community, and the school, to encourage students' cognitive and emotional development.

Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N.A. (1989, February). What works for students at risk: A research synthesis. *Educational Leadership*, 4-13.

"At-risk" students are defined here as those individuals who are in danger of failing to acquire adequate skills through education. Risk factors include low achievement, retention in grade, behavior problems, poor attendance, low SES, and attendance at school with large numbers of poor students.

Although pullout programs of remediation are recognized for their disadvantages, the authors argue that in-class programs are no more effective. Preschool programs, in particular, tend to have strong effects on the language and IQ scores of disadvantaged children immediately after preschool, but these effects diminish with each succeeding year. Therefore, preschool programs, used in isolation, are not likely to reduce a student's risk of school failure. Similar effects have been found with kindergarten remediation.

In contrast, first grade remediation programs that focus on reading—especially those based upon tutoring or small group instruction—were extremely successful in improving reading achievement. The effects, however, are not indefinite.

Effective programs tend to follow either a continuous progress model or a cooperative learning model. In the former, students proceed through a sequence of well-defined objectives and are taught in small groups composed of students at similar school levels. In the latter, students work in small groups to master learning material. Then, teams are rewarded based on the individual learning of all team members.

Vanfossen, B.E., Jones, J.D., & Spade, J.Z. (1987). Curriculum tracking and status maintenance. *Sociology of Education, 60*, 104-122.

This paper explores the effects of curriculum tracking on students who have experienced only one track placement.

Data were drawn from the High School and Beyond (HSB) study, with a sample size of 14,825. All of the subjects stayed in the same track they chose during their sophomore year until their senior year. Variables included demographics, peers' educational plans, student's own expectancies, and tenth grade grades.

A regression model was used which included those variables found by prior research to have an impact on academic performance. All the analyses used standard multiple regression with all variables entered simultaneously and listwise deletion of missing variables. A zero-order correlation between academic track and educational expectation of .56 suggested that while educational expectations may influence a student to enroll in a particular track, a student's experiences once there will strengthen the original expectation. All regression models presented the relationship of the senior dependent variable to other independent variables while controlling for the sophomore level of the dependent variable. Thus, those who performed well in the sophomore year also tended to perform well in the senior year; the Beta coefficient of this relationship was very high and statistically significant.

SES had an effect on track location independent of its influence on academic achievement. Grades in school were raised from the sophomore to the senior year in the academic track, stayed the same for the general track, and decreased for the vocational track. The self-esteem of academically tracked seniors raised between the sophomore and senior years, but decreased for those in the vocational track. Academically tracked students were more likely to be involved in extracurricular activities. In addition, fewer discipline problems are reported in academically tracked classrooms than in vocationally tracked classrooms.

Tracking, then, not only affects learning, but also patterns of course taking, future orientations, peer relationships, and impressions of school environment.

Wehlage, G.G., & Rutter, R.A. (1986). Dropping out: How much do schools contribute to the problem? *Teachers College Record, 87*, 374-392.

The authors explore how student background and school policy interact to increase the likelihood that a student will drop out. Given that educators have little control over a student's demographic and home characteristics, they argue that attention should be paid to school experiences and educational policies.

Data were obtained from the High School and Beyond (HSB) study using the 1980 sophomore cohort of approximately 30,000 tenth graders attending 1,105 public and private high schools. A 1982 follow-up questionnaire was administered to the same students. Both "home" and "school" characteristics were treated as independent variables. Each independent variable was tested against groups differentiated as "dropouts," "stay-ins," and "college-bound," using a multivariate discriminant analysis. The results of this test produced two discriminant functions that accounted for both the statistically significant contribution of each variable to identifying group membership as well as explaining the remaining variance. The analysis was carried out on a 40% random weighted sample of HSB students.

The independent variables which represented the factors likely to influence a student's decision to drop out remained consistent with previous findings. SES, race, academic ability, self-esteem, and locus of control were all important variables. Of the school variables that accounted for variance between groups, Expected School Attainment was the most powerful. Achievement test results, SES, and grades were also powerful predictors. With "academic functions" partailed out, new variables, such as truancy, student's expectations, lateness, discipline problems, and hours worked outside of school, best discriminated between those students who dropped out and those who stayed in. The authors regard this as the social context of schooling.

The study concludes that educational policy makers must take into account how school can be perceived differently, and how they affect different groups of students in different ways. They view the dropout problem as emerging from an estrangement of groups of individuals from institutional norms.

Baker, D.P., & Stevenson, D.L. (1986). Mothers' strategies for children's school achievement: Managing the transition to high school. *Sociology of Education, 59*, 156-166.

This study explores the ways in which family background influences the strategies that parents select to foster their children's school achievement.

Forty-one mothers of eighth grade students were randomly selected from a list of 129 mothers provided by a middle school principal. The families represented a range of SES, mostly between upper-middle and upper-lower ranges of occupations. Interview schedules included a number of open- and closed-ended questions about the mother's attitudes toward and actions on behalf of her child's school career. Child's grade point average (GPA) and high school course selection were used as indicators of performance. Mother's education served as a measure of family SES.

Bivariate correlations suggested that the relationship between a mother's suggested strategies to improve her child's school performance and her education is very small. Yet, there was a positive correlation between student GPA and the number of solutions the mother suggested for hypothetical academic and in-school behavior problems, even when the mother's education was controlled. Correlations between a mother's education, her child's school performance, and strategies that the mother actually implemented indicated that mothers with more education have more knowledge regarding their child's schooling, and are more likely to have contact with the school.

Regardless of their own educational attainment, mothers able to suggest more solutions to hypothetical school problems had children with better academic performances. Better educated mothers seemed to be better managers of their children's school careers (monitoring progress, selecting college preparatory curricula, etc.). It may be the case that high SES students do better in our school systems partly because their parents have better management skills.

Bradley, R.H., Caldwell, B.M., & Rock, S.L. (1988). Home environment and school performance: A ten-year follow-up and examination of three models of environmental action. *Child Development, 59*, 852-867.

This study examines the relationship between the home environment (early and contemporary) and children's competence in terms of both academic and classroom behavior measures.

The instruments used included the HOME Inventory*, an observation/interview technique that assessed the quality of the cognitive, social, and emotional stimulation available to the child in the home. Achievement was measured by the Science Research Associates (SRA) achievement test battery, which assessed reading, language arts, and mathematics. Classroom behavior was rated by the classroom teacher using the Classroom Behavior Inventory (CBI).**

Subjects included 42 fourth and fifth grade children attending a public elementary school in Little Rock, Arkansas. The sample was evenly divided between poor and working-class families; a smaller number of middle-class whites were also included. The original sample was 73% black, 56% male, with a mean IQ of 102.7.

Bivariate and first order partial correlational analyses relating measures of the early home environment, at 6-month and 2-year intervals, and contemporary home environment at 10-years, were computed. Measures of competence (IQ, SRA, CBI) were also included.

HOME scores showed several significant correlations with achievement. Partial correlations between early environment and 10-year measures showed a relation between parental responsibility at 6 months and considerate classroom behavior at 10 years, irrespective of contemporary environment. There was also a significant bivariate correlation between 6-month HOME scores and 10-year classroom behavior ratings. By contrast, the availability of learning materials during the school years appears not to be highly correlated with 10-year achievement test scores.

The results, therefore, support theories which emphasize early childhood experiences, rather than contemporary environments, as predictors of later school-related behaviors.

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* Caldwell, B., & Bradley, R. (1984). *Home observations for measurement of the environment.* Little Rock: University of Arkansas.

** Schaefer, E., & Aaronson, M. (1977). *Classroom behavior inventory.* Unpublished manuscript, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

Dornbusch, S.M., Carlsmith, J.M., Bushwall, S.J., Ritter, P.L., Leiderman, H., Hastorf, A.H., & Gross, R.T. (1985). Single parents, extended households, and the control of adolescents. *Child Development, 56,* 326-341.

In this study, mother-only households are shown to be associated with particular patterns of family decision-making which results in adolescent deviance.

Data were drawn from Cycle III of the National Health Examination Survey (1966-1070). The sample consisted of 7,514 subjects. Interviewers obtained detailed information regarding behavior from a parent, as well as details regarding behavioral habits, attitudes, and beliefs from the adolescent. Comparisons were made between mother-only families and families containing both biological parents.

Measures of deviance included contact with the law, arrests, running away, smoking, truancy, and school discipline. Each measure of deviance was standardized by age. The analysis of the relationship between family structure and deviance involved standardizing the proportion of deviance in each of the two groups and then testing for significance between the two standardized proportions. The standard error of the difference in proportions within each age group was estimated. This resulted in a weighted average of the proportion of the standard population in that age group. Finally, the difference in standardized proportions was divided by the weighted average of the standard errors to obtain an appropriate *t* statistic. Separate alphas were computed for scores based on parental reports and on youth reports, and these reliability coefficients were lower than or nearly identical to those for the combined responses.

With no exceptions, the proportion of deviants among mother-only households was greater than the proportion of deviants among households with two natural parents. Controlling for social class did not affect this relationship. Further, labor force participation of the mother did not account for adolescent deviance or family decision-making. These results persisted when controls for race, income, and parent education were applied.

The explanation offered is that a mother, in trying to control an adolescent without a father, is more likely to make decisions with input from the adolescent, or to allow the adolescent to make her or his own decisions. This joint decision-making tends to result in more behavior problems for the adolescent.

Elder, G.H., Van Nguyen, T., & Caspi, A. (1985). Linking family hardship to children's lives. *Child Development, 56*, 361-375.

This study attempts to integrate an understanding of parent and child behavior within the family to the effects of economic decline upon children.

Data were drawn from the Oakland Growth Study. The sample included 167 children (84 boys and 83 girls), who were studied between 1932 and 1939. These students were graduated from high school just before World War II.

Measurements included economic deprivation (deprived or nondeprived) and parenting behavior (rejecting, exploiting, indifferent, supportive). Childhood behaviors were also measured. Aspects of self-competence were assessed through the California Q-sort on levels of goal-orientation, self-inadequacy, and social competence. Self-other relations were measured by a second Q-sort.* Maternal ratings were assessed by interview. Subjects' attractiveness was also measured with an inter-rater reliability above .80.

Data analysis involved correlations between variables. Separate correlations were reported for males and females. Path-analytic findings were used to link economic hardship to adolescent functioning. Finally, to test the effect of physical attractiveness, regression slopes are used to compare the effects of economic hardship on father's behavior towards attractive and unattractive children.

Father's behavior was more strongly correlated to income loss than mother's behavior. In boys, economic hardship was linked to negative perceptions of father, peer dependence, and psychological distress. Standard regression coefficients from path models suggest that girls' behavior was strongly influenced by rejecting behavior of the father, but economic deprivation itself had no significant effects on girls' functioning. Differences between unstandardized regression coefficients of groups of attractive and unattractive girls indicated that family hardship increased father's rejecting behavior only when daughters ranked low on physical attractiveness.

Children's reactions to family life, therefore, emerge as complex reactions to such factors as the family's approach to mediation, and also remain contingent upon family conditions, such as economic deprivation.

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* Block, J. (1971). *Lives through time*. Berkeley: Bancroft.

Heyns, B., & Catsambis, S. (1986). Mother's employment and children's achievement: A critique. *Sociology of Education, 59*, 140-151.

This paper provides a methodological and conceptual critique of the Milne et al. study*, which involved reanalyzing the same High School and Beyond (HSB) database Milne et al. used. They argued that mother's employment has a negative effect on students' reading and mathematics achievement.

Milne et al. adopted certain strategies of analysis that limited their sample size, but also influenced their effects. For example, they excluded students who lived with someone other than a natural parent, were neither white nor black, or had missing data on any variable used in the analysis. The base year sample of HSB students with parental interviews consisted of 6,564; yet, the sample analyzed by Milne et al. consisted of only 2,720 cases. Heyns and Catsambis' study included students with missing variable data, raising the sample size to 3,796. Effects were measured using ordinary least squares, but pairwise deletion of missing variables was used to maximize the information available. Comparisons between the sample size of the two studies suggest that listwise deletion creates a sample that is more advantaged in terms of SES and, therefore, negatively biases the effects of mother's employment on children's achievement.

This study also criticizes the cohort of the Milne et al. samples because it compares only children in the same grade without taking into account the age of the mother. Age of the mother indicates other family background characteristics. For example, a high school student in 1980 could have a mother aged 30 to 50. Yet, women in their fifties in 1980 married earlier, had larger families, have higher family incomes, have fewer children living at home, and are more likely to endorse traditional female roles than a 40-year-old mother. Since the cohorts differ in composition and in the variability observed in the independent variables, pooling distorts the estimated effects, as students who comprise the senior cohort are more highly select in terms of SES and achievement than the sophomore cohort. When missing data are included, the negative effects of mother's employment are reduced.

Heyns and Catsambis conclude that the effect of mother's employment on children's achievement is a complex phenomenon that is related to other family and social characteristics. When these other variables are controlled, the results indicate that, in general, mother's employment does not negatively effect children's achievement.

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* Milne, A.M., Myers, D.E., Rosenthal, A.S., & Ginsburg, A. (1986). Single parents, working mothers, and the educational achievement of school children. *Sociology of Education, 59*, 125-139. See page 19 for annotation of this study.

Lempers, J.D., Clark-Lempers, D., & Simons, R.L. (1989). Economic hardship, parenting, and distress in adolescence. *Child Development, 60*, 25-39.

This study explores the relationship between family economic hardship and adolescent distress.

Subjects consisted of 622 students enrolled in grades 9-12 in a midwestern community in which the value of farmland had substantially dropped. The students attended a private Catholic high school. Of the 622 adolescents who comprised the sample, 250 said they lived on a farm. Participants were ranked according to the Hollingshead Index of Social Position.

The instruments used were the Economic Hardship Questionnaire, a self-report method of measuring economic hardship; the Parenting Questionnaire (taken from Schaefer's Child's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory and from Roberts, Block, and Block, Child Rearing Practices Report); and four measures of distress, including Beck's Depression Inventory, the Loneliness Questionnaire, the Delinquency Questionnaire, and the Drug Use Questionnaire.

Principal factor analyses were run using the squared multiple correlations between the items as the prior communality estimates. In the factor analysis of the responses to the economic hardship questionnaire, one factor was retained by the mineigen criterion. This factor accounted for 34.75% of the variance; all items loaded on this factor. A separate factor analysis with varimax rotation was run on the parenting and distress questionnaires.

For both males and females, economic hardship showed a strong negative association with parental nurturance and a strong positive correlation with inconsistent parental discipline and with depression-loneliness. Path-analytic findings were significant for both sexes and showed that economic hardship directly increases depression and loneliness and also contributes indirectly to depression and loneliness by increasing inconsistent, rejection-oriented discipline and by decreasing parental nurturance. No direct effect was found between economic hardship and the delinquency-drug use factor.

The results indicate that family economic hardship was associated with direct and indirect distress in adolescent boys and girls. The indirect effects of economic hardship were traced to stress-induced changes in parental nurturance and discipline.

Milne, A.M., Myers, D.E., Rosenthal, A.S., & Ginsburg, A. (1986). Single parents, working mothers, and the educational achievement of school children. *Sociology of Education, 59*, 125-139.

This study concludes that both mothers' employment and living in a single parent household can have negative effects on children's school achievement. Mediating variables include income and time use.

Data were drawn from the Sustaining Effects Study of Title I, carried out in 1976-77, for elementary school students (N=12,429) and the High School and Beyond (HSB) study, carried out in 1980. The HSB sample consisted of 2,720 high school sophomores and seniors.

The two major independent variables were the number of parents in a student's family and mother's employment; the outcome variable was achievement. In the HSB sample, all cases in which natural parents were absent were deleted; this distinction was not made in the Sustaining Effects Study. One parent households headed by males were excluded from both samples. To measure mother's employment in the Sustaining Effects Study, the average number of hours worked per week the previous year was estimated. For the HSB sample, mother's employment was provided only in terms of full-time, part-time, or not at all; and also included three time periods (before the child entered elementary school, during elementary school, or during high school). Achievement data in the Sustaining Effects Study were drawn from reading and math scores on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS). In the HSB study, achievement was measured by reading and math tests constructed by the Educational Testing Service. No information was obtained on how long the missing parent had been absent. Further, samples are school based rather than population based; therefore low-achievers may have already dropped out before the survey.

Race, number of parents, and sex are considered exogenous partitioning variables. Each age group was tested with a four-way MANOVA and all lower-order interaction terms to determine which interactions held explanatory power. Separate models for white two parent, white one parent, black two parent, and black one parent families were constructed. The study estimated total, direct, and indirect effects in the structural equation models using ordinary least squares. Total effects for two parent and one parent families were estimated across models within race. The total effects of mother's employment on student's achievement are the sums of the direct and indirect net of mother's educational attainment and student's sex; the direct effects are the effects of mother's employment when all other variables in the model are controlled; the indirect effects are mediated by each of the variables that intervene between mother's employment and student achievement.

Students from two parent families were found to have higher scores on reading and math achievement tests than students from one parent families. This was true for both white and black students in elementary and high school. Indirect effects are somewhat different for white and black students, with family income mediating the most for black students.

Mother's employment had a negative effect on achievement for white elementary and high school students from two parent families. The more the mother worked the stronger the effect. For other groups, the effects of mother's employment were inconsistent.

Variables of primary interest in school achievement, therefore, include number of parents in the home and mother's employment. The effects of these variables, however, differ by student's age, race, and family structure.

Myers, D.E., Milne, A.M., Baker, K.M., & Ginsburg, A. (1987). Student discipline and high school performance. *Sociology of Education, 60*, 18-33.

This study examines the effects of family structure and mother's employment on student misbehavior and academic performance.

Data were drawn from the base year and first follow-up of the High School and Beyond (HSB) study. The base year data, collected in 1980, were obtained from a multistage, stratified cluster sample of 30,000 sophomores. By excluding students who did not participate in the 1982 follow-up study, who transferred from one school to another, who were graduated early, or were neither white nor black, a sample of 19,000 students was gathered. The exogenous variables in this study refer to student and family characteristics in 1980. Achievement tests were administered in both 1980 and 1982. Grades were self-reported.

Linear regression equations were used to obtain estimates of relationships. All analyses involving dependent variables measured two years after the base-year survey were based on the sample of students who remained in the same school that they attended when they were sophomores. To correct for selection bias in the equations for senior students, an additional equation that relates the probability of staying in school to a set of exogenous and predetermined variables measuring the student's family background was estimated. Estimating an equation, as such, can relate a student's "score" on any particular variable to the likelihood that the student will stay in school. Ordinary least squares, which measure the strength of each variable, were used to estimate the parameters in the equations.

White students from single parent families had slightly higher levels of misbehavior than white students from two parent families. White sophomores from one parent families tended to have lower achievement tests scores and grades. Students with working mothers had higher levels of misbehavior and lower achievement test scores than students whose mothers did not work. Living in a single parent family, or having a mother who worked, had few significant effects for blacks. While receiving poor grades tended to make students misbehave, receiving poor achievement test scores did not tend to result in classroom misbehavior, indicating that it is *perceived* failure which results in misbehavior.

This study concludes that changes in the number of parents in the home as well as mother's employment affect both student behavior and achievement.

Peterson, J.L., & Zill, N. (1986). Marital disruption, parent-child relationships, and behavior problems in children. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48*, 295-307.

This study examines the effects of marital disruption on children's behavior.

The data were based on two waves of the National Surveys of Children conducted in 1976-77 and 1981. Information was gathered on 2,301 children in 1,747 households. Data were collected through both interviews and questionnaires. The follow-up involved 1,423 children (80%) of the original sample. Analysis was limited to children with both parents alive at the time of the follow-up, and living with at least one biological parent (75% of the sample). Within this group, 20% were living with only one parent because of separation or divorce. Children were classified as either: those living with both biological (or adoptive) parents, those living with the biological mother but not the biological father, and those living with the biological father but not the biological mother. In the latter two groups, a step, foster, or adoptive parent may have been living in the home. The first group was further subdivided by the level of marital conflict.

The parent-child relationship was measured by using the child's response to questions about closeness, frequency of doing things together, amount of affection received, and aspiration to simulate personal qualities of the parent (correlation coefficients=.50 for fathers and .33 for mothers). Items on the scale were summed to form a scale that was then dichotomized such that half the sample fell into the upper part of each dichotomy. A cross-classification of the dichotomized scales was also constructed. Of the five outcome variables used, three were drawn from the Achenback & Edelbrock* scale for mental and behavioral disorders: depressed/withdrawn, antisocial, and impulsive/hyperactive. Two outcome variables were school behaviors: having parents asked into school to see a teacher or principal, and suspension/expulsion.

The results indicated that marital disruption was associated with poorer parent-child relationships. Children who had a positive relationship with both parents were least likely to exhibit any of the problems measured, though there were some sex differences in the outcome variables. Multiple classification analysis indicated that depression, antisocial behavior, and impulsive behavior were all influenced by the living arrangements of the family and the amount of conflict in the family, even when parent education, family income, race, and age of the child are controlled.

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* Achenbach, T., & Edelbrock, C. (1981). Behavioral problems and competencies reported by parents of normal and disturbed children aged four through sixteen. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, Serial No. 188.

Shinn, M. (1978). Father absence and children's cognitive development. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85, 295-324.

This study reviews literature indicating that father absence has negative effects on children's cognitive development as assessed by standardized IQ and achievement tests and school performance.

Of the 28 studies reviewed in the article, 16 showed negative effects of father absence, nine found no significant effects, and three found positive or mixed positive and negative effects. The article also reviews methodological problems associated with the comparison of different studies, such as the definition of terms and types of absence. The characteristics of the subjects studied, such as race or SES, may also bear a relation to the magnitude of the father-absence effects.

Other variables involved in the effects of father absence include financial hardship or family income, high levels of anxiety, and low levels of parent-child interaction and parental attention in single parent families. Sex role identification does not seem to play a major role.

Steinberg, L. (1987). Single parents, stepparents, and the susceptibility of adolescents to antisocial peer pressure. *Child Development, 58*, 269-275.

This study measures adolescents' susceptibility to peer pressure as a function of family structure. The three types of family structures considered are: both natural parents, mothers alone, and one natural parent and a stepparent.

The sample consisted of 865 adolescents, aged 10 to 15, enrolled in grades 5, 6, 8, and 9 in the Madison, Wisconsin, Unified School District. The demographic characteristics of the participants were representative of the overall district population. The sample was evenly divided by sex, and was 86% white. Of the youngsters, 41% came from blue collar families, 38% from white collar, and 21% from professional families. Two-thirds of the children were residing with both natural parents, one-fifth with their mother, and one-tenth with their mother and stepfather. Data were collected via questionnaires containing measures of susceptibility to peer pressure* and patterns of decision-making.

A five-way ANOVA in which susceptibility to peer pressure was examined as a function of sex, grade, SES, family structure, and maternal employment was used. Each variable was controlled by using a hierarchical stepdown ANOVA in which the effect of family structure was tested while controlling for all other main effects. All interaction effects were tested while controlling for all main effects and all other interaction effects of the same order. The results support the hypothesis that family structure exerts an impact on an adolescent's susceptibility to peer pressure to engage in antisocial activity, even after controlling for all other demographic factors. In order to test the effect of an additional adult in the home, a comparison was conducted between the susceptibility scores of the youngsters living in single parent households and the weighted average of the susceptibility scores of youngsters from biologically intact and stepfamily homes. The results of this test do not support the "additional adult" hypothesis ($p>.10$).

The results indicate that family structure may affect adolescents' susceptibility to antisocial peer pressure, which in turn may affect their involvement in deviant or delinquent activity. This contradicts the additional adult hypothesis which, by only taking into account the presence of another adult, does not include how the adult's particular role as parent in the family affects the child. The deterrent effect of an additional biological parent is likely to be stronger than the deterrent effect of a stepparent.

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* Berndt, T. (1979). Developmental changes in conformity to peers and parents. *Developmental Psychology, 15*, 608-616.

Stevenson, D.L., & Baker, D.P. (1987). The family-school relation and the child's school performance. *Child Development, 58,* 1348-1357.

This study examines the relation between parents' involvement in schooling and children's achievement.

The sample is composed of 179 children and their teachers. The data set is part of the Time Use Longitudinal Panel Study collected in 1981 and 1982.

Educational status of the mother was converted to a seven-point scale. Measures of parent involvement in schooling activities and the child's performance were drawn from the teacher's questionnaire. Each hypothesis was investigated in a zero-order correlational framework. Associations between parent involvement and the education of the mother, the age of the child, the sex of the child, and the school performance of the child were calculated. Next, multiple correlations among these factors were examined through multiple regression equations. First, parental involvement was regressed on the mother's educational level, the child's age, and the child's gender. Then, the measures of school performance were regressed on the mother's education, the child's age, and the child's sex.

The correlations of the total sample indicate a significant positive correlation between the mother's education and the degree of parent involvement in school activities. The higher the education level of the parents, the more involved they were in school activities. Parents of younger children were also more likely to be involved in school activities. There was no significant difference in parent involvement based on the sex of the child, although girls had slightly more involved parents. Parents involved in school activities were more likely to have children performing well in school. Bivariate correlations indicated a different pattern of associations between variables for boys and girls. Mother's education and son's age accounted for almost one-half of the parent involvement in the son's, but not the daughter's, education. Yet, parent involvement had a stronger impact on the overall school performance of girls.

No direct effect of maternal educational status on school performance independent of parent involvement in school activities was found.

Ekstrom, R.B., Goertz, M.E., Pollack, J.M., & Rock, D.A. (1986). Who drops out of high school and why? Findings from a national study. *Teachers College Record, 87*, 356-373.

This paper analyzes high school dropout data from the 1982 wave of the High School and Beyond (HSB) study.

Descriptive analysis was used to describe those who stayed in school and those who dropped out between sophomore and senior years. "Stayers" and "dropouts" were compared in terms of: race/ethnicity, SES, family structure, home educational supports, ability and attitudes, and school behavior. Path analysis was used to explain why students dropped out of school. The results of the path analysis were further verified through a propensity analysis. Finally, a value-added analysis was conducted to estimate the relative impact of staying in school on gains of tested achievement.

Dropouts disproportionately represented low SES families and racial/ethnic minorities. Dropouts were most likely to be male, attend public schools in urban areas, and reside in the South or the West. Dropouts also had fewer study aides in their homes, were less likely to have both natural parents living at home, had mothers with low levels of education, and low expectations for their children, and had parents who were less likely to monitor their children's activities. Dropouts had lower school grades and lower test scores, did less homework, and reported more disciplinary problems in school.

Students who later dropped out reported spending more time "going on dates" than students who stayed in school. Dropouts also reported spending less time reading than did stayers. Yet, dropouts were also more likely to be working for pay during the school year than stayers; dropouts reported that their jobs were more important to them than school. Dropouts showed significantly lower levels of self-concept than stayers, and reported a significantly more externalized sense of control. Female dropouts tended to endorse traditional female role stereotypes.

The demographic variables related to dropping out were, in order of importance: intact family, SES, race/ethnicity, region, and sex.

Entwisle, D.R., Alexander, K.L., Pallas, A.M., & Cadigan, D. (1987). The emergent academic self-image of first graders: Its response to social structure. *Child Development, 58*, 1190-1206.

This study had two aims: to determine the kinds of information from which urban first grade children forge their academic self-image, and to determine how this self-image effects later academic achievement.

The data for the analysis were drawn from the Beginning School Study (BSS) administered in the Baltimore City Public Schools in Fall 1982. A stratified random sample, equally divided be race and SES, was drawn. Eight hundred twenty-five first graders and 800 parents participated. Students and parents were interviewed on separate occasions. Teachers were asked to complete questionnaires.

Academic self-image was measured by Dickstein's test.* Demographic variables included: race, sex, and parent's educational attainment. Parent variables included: general estimate of child's ability and expectation for child's school performance. Child variables included: personal maturity, based on the National Survey of Children; problem referral status; expectations of their own grades; images of their bodies; peer popularity; and school absences. Measures of cognitive performance included: grades and California Achievement Test scores.

Ordinary least squares are used to estimate the model with the child's academic self-image taken as the dependent variable. Unstandardized coefficients were used in comparing magnitudes of coefficients across subgroups of boys and girls because self-image has different components for the two sexes.

Neither race nor parent's educational attainment were significant predictors of academic self-image. For girls, parent attitudes were significant in relation to academic self-image. For boys, self-evaluations had a stronger effect, and parent's expectations showed a negative relation. For children of both sexes, while grades in reading were not significant predictors, parent's expectations regarding reading were significant.

Children's academic self-image early in the first grade did not differ by race, SES, early grades, or evaluations.

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* Dickstein, E. (1972). *The development of self-esteem: Theory and measurement.* PhD. Dissertation, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD.

Fordham, S., & Ogbu, J.U. (1986). Black students' school success: Coping with the burden of "acting white." *The Urban Review, 18*, 176-206.

The authors distinguish between immigrant minorities such as Jews and other European groups, and caste-like minorities, such as blacks and Puerto Ricans. While the former exercised free choice in opting to immigrate to this country, the latter were forcefully removed from their homes or taken over by conquest.

Recent research has revealed an "anti-academic" achievement ethic among black and Hispanic children. It appears that many students are pressured by peers to sabotage their education by deliberately performing badly and not attending classes. The authors suggest that black students do poorly in school because they experience "inordinate ambivalence and affective dissonance" regarding academic effort and success (p. 176). Because whites historically refused to acknowledge black intellectual ability, blacks began to doubt their own abilities and to view academic achievement as the province of whites only. They then began to discourage peers from academic success, viewing this achievement as "acting white."

The authors argue that blacks have developed an "oppositional frame of reference" that includes strategies to protect their ethnic identity. In interviews with black high school students in a predominantly black school, they found that underachievers knowingly limited their achievement by not studying or by cutting classes. High achievers were committed to doing well in school, but reported that they had developed strategies for coping with academic success that included acting out, being the class clown, keeping their efforts a secret, or generally maintaining a low profile. These black students were concerned about being accused of "acting white."

Similar findings of an anti-achievement ethnic have been reported for Hispanics.

Gougis, R.A. (1986). The effects of prejudice and stress on the academic performance of Black-Americans. In U. Neisser (Ed.), *The School Achievement of Minority Children: New Perspectives.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

The experiment reported here was designed to show how racial prejudice, emotional stress in response to that prejudice, and cognitive performance interact.

Two groups of black college students were asked to study a play. The groups consisted of 90 black students enrolled at Howard University (66 male and 24 female) who received course credit for participating. Students were divided into two groups. In the experimental group, the play read contained expressions of racial prejudice, and group members were shown pictures illustrating either black oppression or pleasant pictures to help them "get in the proper mood for the script." The play read by the control group contained only friendly dialogue. Izard's Differential Emotion Scale (DES)* was used to assess the emotional state and degree of emotional stress of all the subjects.

Subjects were given five minutes to read the script, then ten minutes to look at the pictures before completing the DES. Then they were instructed to read the script a second time and learn a particular part, which they would be asked to recall. Subjects were allowed to take written notes, but they were given no longer than 30 minutes. The subjects were then given a test that provided cue lines and were asked to fill in the missing lines as required. They were given no longer than 15 minutes. The dependent measures included: 1) the emotional state and stress of the subject; 2) the amount of study time used; 3) the number of words written as notes to learn the script; and 4) recall of the learned material.

The results indicated that experimental subjects exposed to racial prejudice experienced more emotional stress, spent less time studying, and recalled less material. They did not, however, take fewer written notes.

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* Izard, C.E. (1972). *Patterns of emotions: A new analysis of anxiety and depression.* New York: Academic Press.

Graham, S., & Long, A. (1986). Race, class, and the attributional process. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78* (1), 4-13.

This study examines the process of attributional thinking in black and white seventh grade students representing both low SES and middle SES groups.

Subjects were asked to respond to a questionnaire which instructed them to either imagine (Experiment I), or react to (Experiment II) having succeeded or failed an exam, with the cause specified. They reported their expectancy for success, anticipated teacher evaluation, and affective reactions. Children within each racial group were designated as middle or low SES according to their parents' score on the Duncan Socioeconomic Index (SEI). The total sample consisted of 42 middle SES black, 50 middle SES white, 45 low SES black, and 34 low SES white children. Each group was approximately evenly divided by sex. Experiment II involved 148 participants from Experiment I.

Attributions included low ability, lack of effort, bad strategy, task difficulty, criticism by others, and bad luck. A corresponding set of causes was presented for success. The independent variable—stability and controllability of the manipulated case—was assessed on three scales: internal and external, unchanging and temporary, and controllable and uncontrollable. Future expectancy was measured by asking children to anticipate their performance on the next exam. In the second experiment children were asked to rate their performance on a recently returned math test. No attempt was made to determine the accuracy of children's self-evaluations.

There was no main effect involving sex of the subjects. A MANOVA was performed on children's actions for luck, stability, and controllability as causal dimensions. Race and class were between subject variables and casual attribution was the repeated factor. There were no significant interactions of causal attribution with race and class. A 2x2 (race x class) ANOVA showed a significant race x class interaction. $F(1,444)=10.79$, $MSe=4.64$, $p<.001$. Low SES blacks perceived they performed more poorly than did any of the other three demographic groups.

The study indicates that black children in general, and disadvantaged black children in particular, do not display a less adaptive attributional pattern than do white children. Therefore, success and failure do not have different meanings for individuals who differ in ethnicity.

Lareau, A. (1987). Social class differences in family-school relationships: The importance of cultural capital. *Sociology of Education, 60*, 73-85.

This study explores how characteristics of family life mediate the school experiences of children.

Interviews were conducted with parents, teachers, and principals of first and second grade students. Two schools, one composed of low, and the other composed of middle, SES students were selected. Students were observed in two first grade classrooms. Six white children in each class were selected for further study. Reading groups were divided into high level, medium level, and low level reading ability, and were equally divided by sex. One child had a single parent, the other five had two parents. The sample was evenly divided among working and nonworking mothers.

Contrary to teacher beliefs, lower-class parents were as concerned about their children's education as middle-class parents. The differences between the two groups lay in differential beliefs about their role versus the school's role in educating children, as well as differential self-perceptions regarding their efficacy in helping their children.

Middle-class parents viewed their children's education as a mutual concern between home and school, whereas lower-class parents believed that their children's education was the responsibility of the teacher and the school. Thus, they read to their children, attended school events, and initiated interactions with teachers much less frequently than did middle-class parents.

Lower-class parents also reported feeling reluctant to help their children, for fear that they might mislead them academically.

The article concludes that lower-class parents' inferior education and lower prestige jobs make them more dependent upon teachers to know what is best for their children.

Mensch, B.S., & Kandel, D.B. (1988). Dropping out of high school and drug involvement. *Sociology of Education, 61*, 95-113.

This study concludes that high school dropouts are more involved with cigarettes and illicit drugs than are graduates. Controlling for other important risk factors, prior use of cigarettes, marijuana, and other illicit drugs increased the propensity to drop out. The earlier the initiation into drugs, the greater the probability of dropping out.

The analysis is based upon the youth cohort sample of the 1984 National Longitudinal Survey of Young Adults (aged 19-27). The sample breaks down into: 6,062 males, 6,009 females, 2,986 blacks, 1,959 Hispanics, and 1,929 economically disadvantaged white youth. Respondents were asked separate questions about cigarettes and marijuana.

To specify the relation between dropping out and drug use, an estimated discrete-time event-history model was developed. The model estimated the rate of occurrence of an event as a function of covariates, and identified temporal relationships by the inclusion of time-varying independent variables. This made it possible to specify whether drug use was initiated before the risk of dropping out at a certain age, and if so, what effect it had on dropping out. The following sociodemographic background variables were included in the multivariate models: parents' education, race/ethnicity, household structure, residence (urban or rural), and region. Adult role and delinquency variables included: sexual intercourse (age of first experience), pregnancy, delinquency, academic ability, locus of control, and self-esteem.

In general, the earlier the involvement in drug use and sexual activity, the higher the rate of dropping out. The more socially unacceptable the substance, the stronger the association with dropping out. Sixty percent of the males who first used illicit drugs other than marijuana at age 12 or earlier dropped out, compared to 25% of those who started doing so after age 18. Among females, early intercourse and pregnancy were more likely to lead to dropping out than early drug use.

Ordinary least-squares (OLS) regression was performed to select variables for the logistic analysis. Explanatory variables that were significant included drug variables (except alcohol use), parental education, and family intactness.

Phillips, D.A. (1987). Socialization of perceived academic competence among highly competent children. *Child Development, 58,* 1308-1320.

This study uses path-analytic findings to relate children's perceptions of their own competence to both objective evidence of their achievements and their parents' appraisals.

The subjects were 34 male and 47 female third graders, along with 71 mothers and 57 fathers. Fifty-five children had two parents participate and 26 children had one parent participate. The families were predominantly upper- and middle-class. The children selected had scored above the seventy-fifth national percentile on third grade achievement tests and had been ranked by their teachers as comprising the top third of their classes.

The Perceived Competence Scale (PCS) was used to assess the children's perceptions [M=3.21, SD=.59, range=1.00 (low) to 4.00 (high)]. A central set of analyses employed a two-way (sex X perceived competence) factorial design. Children were assigned to low, average, and high groups based upon PCS scores. Alpha and test-retest reliabilities (.70 and greater) were obtained for all dependent measures.

There were no sex differences in competence beliefs. The six groups did not differ significantly in actual achievement ($p>.30$). Four multivariate analyses of covariance were performed on clusters of intercorrelated measures. MANOVA runs on perceptions, expectancies, effort, and standards indicated that children who underestimated their abilities found school more difficult, adopted lower expectancies for success, and perceived that adults held negative perceptions of their competence.

The MANCOVA run on parents' perceptions of their children's ability, expectations for success, standards, and school difficulty yielded a main effect for perceived competence ($p>.05$). Thus, mothers and fathers of those with low perceived competence did not hold more negative perceptions of their children's abilities. Significant perceived competence group effects were found in child and parent ratings of motivation ($p>.05$). Parents' achievement beliefs were strongly correlated with children's self-perceptions of competence.

Parents appeared to contribute to children's perceived competence, even among uniformly bright children. Recursive path analysis indicated that children's perceived academic competence was more directly influenced by their parents' beliefs than by their own records of achievement.

Pinkett, K.E.L., & Quay, L.C. (1987). Race versus social class: Social orientation and cognitive play in black and white middle SES preschool children. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 8,* 343-350.

Black and white preschool boys and girls were compared on the frequency with which they interacted socially and nonsocially.

The subjects consisted of 85 black and 27 white middle SES preschool children from two racially integrated private schools, with a mean age of 4 years, 11 months; 47 were boys, 65 were girls. Each child was observed during indoor free play for a total of 20 minutes over a three-month period. Social interaction included eye contact, talking, smiling, gesturing, or touching. Noninteraction was defined as playing alone and was specified as either engaged with some material task (occupied) or without a task (unoccupied). Child's play was recorded as either functional—simple repetitive movements which lacked purpose or organization; constructive—purposeful, goal-directed, or creative play; or dramatic—fantasy or imaginative play. Four pairs of observers were used, with each pair simultaneously but independently observing the same subject. For the occurrence and nonoccurrence of behaviors the mean interobserver reliability was .92 and .95 respectively.

A chi-square test was computed to determine if black and white children differed in social orientation. The test was not significant. The overall chi-square comparison between boys and girls was significant. Follow-up chi-square analysis employing partitioning of contingency tables into simple degrees of freedom was performed. To ascertain if black and white boys and girls differed in the frequency with which they engaged in cognitive play, a 2(race) x 2(gender) MANOVA was computed. The dependent variables were the three types of play and were measured by frequency. The MANOVA yielded no significant race or gender differences and no significant race x gender interaction.

No race differences were found, but sex differences were found for social interaction, with boys engaging more frequently in social interaction than girls. On the frequency of cognitive play tasks neither race nor sex differences, nor a race by sex interaction, occurred.

Trotman, F.K. (1977). Race, IQ, and the middle class. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 69*, 266-273.

This study explores the relationship between home environment and IQ by measuring the underlying process variables related to IQ.

Fifty black and 50 white middle-class families of ninth grade girls were compared with regard to intellectual home environment ratings*, Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test results, Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT) scores, grade point averages, and Warner's Index of Status Characteristics.** Evidence about the validity of the measure of intellectual environment was obtained through the use of Mosier's double cross-validation, which furnished evidence about the stability of results based upon a single testing. This procedure involved the random division of the total sample into two subsamples, the computation of regression weights for each subsample separately, and the application of each set of regression weights to the other subsample for prediction of the criterion. The resulting correlations for the two subsamples were both .66. Reliability estimates obtained through the use of Hoyt's analysis of variance procedure were .89 for the measurement of environment-intelligence and .95 for the measure of environment-achievement. Correlations between the MAT and the Otis-Lennon yield validity coefficients that fall within the .50 to .75 range.

Despite their similarity on SES, the home environments of middle-class white families showed a significantly higher level of intellectuality than middle-class black families. The positive relationship between home and intelligence test scores was stronger for black families than white families.

There was a direct relationship between intellectual home environment and IQ. Traditional indices of SES represent insufficient assessments of important environmental variables related to intelligence test results.

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* Wolf, R. (1964). The measurement of environments. In A. Anastasi (Ed.), *Testing Problems in Prospective*. New York: American Council on Education.

** Warner, W.C. (1949). *Social class in America*. Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Velez, W. (1989). High school attrition among Hispanic and non-Hispanic white youths. *Sociology of Education*, 62, 119-133.

Using the sophomore cohort of the High School and Beyond (HSB) study, this study examines the effects of various high school behaviors on Hispanic students.

The sample included 1,116 Chicanos, 195 Cubans, 192 Puerto Ricans, and 4,170 non-Hispanic white students. Logistic models of prediction for the three Hispanic subgroups and the non-Hispanic white sample were used to assess the relative significance of the variables among these groups. The dependent variable (dropout) was compared with the following independent variables: recent immigration, disciplinary problems, suspension, class cutting, educational plans, mother's aspirations, track or curriculum type, co-curricular activities, grades, absence, SES, age, sex, dating, change in schools, intactness of family.

Truancy had a significant effect on dropout behavior for all groups, except Puerto Ricans, where absences led to lower rates of dropping out. Among all students, higher SES was negatively correlated with dropping out. The magnitude of the effect was especially large for Cuban students, but still significant for the other two Hispanic groups. Cuban students had significantly higher SES levels than did Chicano and Puerto Rican students. Among all three Hispanic subgroups, female students were more likely to drop out. Good academic performance led to lower dropout rates in all groups except Puerto Ricans, where good grades increased their likelihood of dropping out. Cubans were the only Hispanic subgroup in which involvement in extracurricular activities decreased their likelihood of dropping out. Puerto Rican and white students whose mothers had high educational aspirations were less likely to drop out, but Chicanos and Cubans were more likely to drop out the higher the mother's aspirations. Recent immigrants (Chicanos and Puerto Ricans) were more likely to drop out. Cuban and white students, in general, shared similar results for 13 out of 16 predictors while Puerto Rican and Chicano students shared similar results for 12 out of 16 predictors.

A significant intra-Hispanic difference was observed regarding immigration. Cuban immigrants were less likely to drop out, while their Puerto Rican and Chicano counterparts were more likely to drop out. This difference is attributed to political motivations for migration and more favorable state policies.